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ABSTRACT

Four speeches delivered at the Research in Adult Basic Education Conference are presented. The first paper, by Larry Martin, describes his preliminary investigation into psychosocial characteristics of adult basic education and adult secondary education participants. The second paper, An Alternative Program for Attaining Adult Literacy, by Gordon Godbey, focuses on the power of instructional technology to bring about a more effective literacy delivery system to reach adults who will participate or cannot participate in the current system. The third paper, by Gordon Larson, is a review of the literature on occupational literacy and indicates that the impact of literacy programs on occupational success has been limited. The final paper, by Kenneth Mattran, describes a new instructional model which, the author argues, is a significant improvement in current English-as-a-second-language program practices. (LRA)

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RESEARCH IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION
SELECTED ISSUES

Papers Delivered at a Conference Held
at Southern Illinois University
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is under the direction of Drs. John R. Verduin, Jr.
and Harry G. Miller with program coordination by
Dr. Charles E. Greer.

INTRODUCTION

The papers in this publication were first delivered at the Research Seminar in Honor of the 15th Anniversary of the Adult Basic Education Program held at Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville, Illinois on May 29, 1979.* The papers selected for presentation at the Seminar were obtained through an open invitation to the adult education community. Respondents to the solicitation were encouraged to address any aspect of adult basic education that they deemed pertinent; the subsequent submissions revealed a wide range of research interests.

The original invitation was extended because it was judged that after some fifteen years of existence the federal ABE program (established through the Economic Opportunity legislation in 1964) needed some further critical attention. The literature of ABE is replete with descriptions of practice, but with the exception of recent criticisms of the Adult Performance Level (APL) Project there is a noticeable dearth of critical assessment. The present publication is a modest attempt to contribute to the ABE literature.

The papers are presented in the same order as at the Seminar. Dr. Larry Martin's paper is a direct result of his Ph.D. dissertation completed at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. As acknowledged at the Seminar his work is a preliminary investigation into psychosocial characteristics of adult basic education and adult secondary education participants and is very much in need of further investigation. Professor Martin is on the faculty at Alabama A & M University.

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The paper delivered by Gordon Godbey (Professor of Education, The Pennsylvania State University) is less a research study than an argument for an alternative to the traditional classroom based ABE program. Dr. Godbey focuses his attention on the power of instructional technology to bring about a more effective literacy delivery system to reach adults who will not or cannot participate in the current system.

Gordon Larson's paper is a review of the growing but somewhat scattered literature on occupational literacy. This review and synthesis by Dr. Larson, with particular attention to studies conducted in the military, indicates that the impact of literacy programs on occupational success has been surprisingly limited. He recounts numerous studies which have produced many conflicting findings about the value of many literacy training practices. Dr. Larson is currently a research associate at Rutgers University and a captain in the United States Army.

Kenneth Mattran addresses a sugnificant component of adult basic education - English as a secone language (ESL). Dr. Mattran's paper describes a new instructional model which he argues is a significant improvement in current ESL practices. As noted in his concluding remarks at the Seminar he is planning to determine the efficacy of the model by teaching an ESL class in a public school ABE program as part of his academic load at the University of Nebraska, a rare case of a professor practicing what he preaches.

While these papers differ substantially in approach, focus and degree of scholarship they do have a common denominator - they reveal how much is still to be learned about a program which has expended more than one billion dollars in the past fifteen years and annually now serves nearly two million adults. We trust the reader will acquire new or revealing insights into ABE

as a result of these papers.

A note of thanks for the preparation of this publication* must go to the staff of the Region V Adult Education Service Center at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, particularly, Dr. Charles Greer. Kathy Gray and Corinne Mitchell are commended for their typing.

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A Descriptive Survey of ABE/ASE Students' Psychosocial Characteristics and the Effect of Education on Four Psychosocial Variables

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Numerous authors in adult education (Mezirow et.al., 1975; Anderson and Neimi, 1969; hastings, 1968; and others) indicate Adult Basic Education (ABE) and Adult Secondary Education (ASE) students have emotional problems that must be confronted by teachers. The emotional problems of ABE/ASE students are often of a psychosocial nature. The research project described in this paper investigated the psychosocial characteristics of ABE/ASE students and the extent to which such characteristics were affected by educational experiences.

The following research questions were constructed to address the problem investigated by the study:

1. What proportion of the ABE and ASE students in the sample have a "favorable ratio" of the positive aspects of an ego-stage crisis over the negative aspects?

2. What proportion of the ABE and ASE student in the sample have high pertinent, low pertinent, or inconclusive pertinent concerns for "Trust", "Autonomy", "Initiative", or "Industry"?

3. a. What proportion of the ABE and ASE students in the sample believe that the educational experiences of ABE and ASE programs greatly influenced them to become more positive with respect to their psychosocial concerns for trust, autonomy, initiative, and/or industry? What proportion believed this influence has been minimal? What proportion believed this influence helped some, but, not greatly?

   b. What proportion of the ABE and ASE students in the sample believed that the educational experiences in ABE and ASE programs greatly influenced them to become more negative with respect to their psychosocial concerns for trust, autonomy, initiative, and/or industry? What proportion believed this influence has been minimal? What proportion believed this influence helped some, but, not greatly?

Background

ABE and ASE programs were mandated by the federal government to

provide illiterate and functional illiterate adults a means to acquire and upgrade their literacy skills. Theses program areas are in their infancy in terms of being academic programs of study, and are still developing in their abilities to facilitate the learning needs of the students who enroll in such classes. Since these program areas are young, in terms of their history, they lack a foundation that is built on carefully designed research studies that focus on the specific problems of the field. For example, many teachers who teach ABE and ASE students have relied on the literature that describes the "disadvantaged" adult (Anderson and Niemi, 1969) to get an idea of the types of students they should expect in their classes. This type of situation has prompted other authors (Kavale and Lindsey, 1977) to call for more research on problems that are specific to ABE and ASE programs.

In the ABE and/or ASE program, the teaching/learning evironment, that is, the transactions between teachers and students, and among students, becomes a crucial element in the student's choice to remain in the program (Kavale and Lindsey, 1977; Mezirow et al., 1975). Therefore, to be effective in offering programs that faciliatate the needs of ABE and ASE students, teachers should have thorough knowledge of the characteristics of the students enrolling in their classes, the psychosocial concerns of those students, and the extent to which the education enviroment effects psychosocial concerns.

The literature concerning the psychological and sociological characteristics of students indicated many have negative characteristics. This literature aiso indicated teachers tend to establish classroom environments that respond to such characteristics (Mezirow et al., 1975; Kreitlow, 1972). That is, teachers tend to place a high priority on

establishing friendly, trusting relationships with students.

The literature on the current problems and concerns of ABE and ASE teachers indicated the high rates of absenteeism and the dropout rate are major areas of concern (Mezirow et al., 1975). Other authors have argued that teachers should be more sensitive to the peculiar needs and characterisitics of adults as learners (Hand, 1968) and that teachers need to understand the students in their own sub-cultures (Kreitlow, 1965). These authors argued further that more specific research is needed to investigate the characteristics and concerns of these students.

The review of the background literature indicated many of the studies that identified psychological and sociological characteristics of ABE and ASE students were not grounded in any theoretical framework. Therefore, the terms and concepts they used to describe these students are questionable in terms of their meaning and applicability, i.e., certain terms have theoretically based meanings and tend to change with the theory, e.g., the term "self-concept." Also, most of these studies have attempted to explain the psychosocial characteristics of ABE and ASE students by drawing inferences from an examination of the student's environmental surroundings (Anderson and Niemi, 1969). These authors implied that there is a close relationship between the individual's environmental surrounding and his/her amount of ego strength. For example, Anderson and Niemi (1969) argued that because a great number of disadvantaged people are dependent on pulbic assistance, they can be characterized by thier lack of self-confidence and their development of dependency attitudes. The methodology of these studies appeared to lack an indepth focus on the specific psychosocial characteristics and concerns of students.

The present study employed a methodology which provided for a tighter research design than those studies reviewed in the literature. It employed the ego-stage model developed by Erik Erikson (1963) to identify and describe the psychosocial characteristics of students. Erikson's model provided an indepth, theoretically grounded approach to the study of the problem and also provided a basis for consistency in analyzing the interpreting the results. This model described human development in terms of eight ego stages in which the individual, through his/her ego, must confront inner and outer conflicts. It provided a theoretical basis from which to investigate the subject within his/her environment and the manner in which the environment has influenced the development of the ego.

This study operationalized the theoretical constructs of Erikson's model through the use of attitude scales. These attitude scales were used to gather information on students' psychosocial characteristics and concerns in an objective and systematic manner. This approach allowed the researcher to gather similar information, in a consistent manner, from all the subjects in the sample. It also gave the researcher tighter control over the sampling process, encouraged a larger sample, and provided a more reliable basis of consistency in analyzing the data than was provided in the other studies cited in the literature.

Theoretical Framework

This study applied ego psychology to provide descriptions of the psychosocial characteristics of ABE/ASE students. Boyd (1964) suggested that there are two strong characteristics of ego psychology which made it suitable for a study of this nature: a) ego psychology describes human behavior in developmental terms; and b) the developmental terms

and concepts employed in ego psychology are rooted in the principle of transactions between the growing organism and the changing environment. That is, ego psychology strives to discover the integrative and disruptive forces acting within and on the human orgainism as it attempts to handle problems arising from various fields of operation. The model developed by Erik Erikson (1963) represents the specific theoretical formulation, within the area of ego psychology, that was employed in this study (See Appendix I).

Erikson's Theory

Erikson's model describes human psychosocial development. He postulated that people progress through eight ego-stages in which they must confront inner and outer conflicts. Each successive stage brings the individual into more complex activities and interperonal relationships. He postulated further that each stage follows an "epigenetic" pattern, having its special time of ascendancy, in which the individual's ego must resolve a binary conflict or crisis, the solution of which will significantly affect the ego's future development.

Erikson also noted that in the normal, healthy development of the ego there is not a sharp polarity to the solution of a crisis. A positive solution to a crisis, e.g., trust as opposed to mistrust, is also composed of a certain residue of the negative. Each crisis exists as an active dimension of the ego as new crisis arise and are confronted. The direction in which an individual resolves each crisis determines how the individual's personality can be characterized, e.g., an individual who resolved the first stage positively can be characterized as a "trusting" person.

The work of Robert Boyd (1961, 1964, 1970) added an additional

dimension to the "phase-specific" concept mentioned above. He argued that individuals who have resolved phase-specific crises may have "pertinent" concerns for those stages at a later point in their lives. His research suggested that as individuals encounter phase-specific concerns they have pertinent concerns for those stages already resolved. Also, those individuals who have pertinent concerns at particular points in their lives, tend to want to change their concept of themselves in respect to the stage in question. For example, an individual may have phase-specific concern for the stage of "Intimacy vs. Isolation", but finds it difficult to positively resolve this stage because of excessive negative residue in the stage of "Trust vs. Mistrust". Therefore, the individual vould have a "pertinent" concern to become more trusting.

The first four stages of this model provide the essential ingredients for the development of an adult personality. The strength or the firmness of an individual's sense of identity will be determined, in large part, by how well he/she has resolved these ego stages. In accordance with the theory, adults may have "phase-specific" concerns for the stages of "Identity vs. Role Confusion," "Intimacy vs. Isolation," "Generativity vs. Stagnation, : or "Integrity vs. Disgust/Desparit.: However, they may have "pertinent" concern for any of the first four stages with which they are not content. In this sense, the future development of an adult's personality is also significantly influenced by the resolution of the first four stages and their degree of pertinency.

Methodology

Boyd (1974) argued that many of the assumptions and self-perceptions we hold as human beings are held at bay in the unconscious realm of the mind. These unconscious thoughts and ideas also influence our interrelationships withother people and our intrarelationships to ourselves.

Boyd explained the relationship of the unconscious to the self when he said,

> I see the unconscious as standing for that cluster of unexamined assumptions which within their own context attempt to structure transactions. These unexamined assumpions remain so as to share in one way or another a basic proposition -- that an open examination of the assumption would destroy some aspect of the individual's life-view and the maintenance of this life-view is crucial to survival. The conscious is observable in the individual's open examination of assuptions which serve as the basis for his dicision-making. (Robert Boyd, 1974, p.11)

Therefore, this research examined those assuptions made by ABE/ASE students, in their everyday functioning, which underlie their decision-making processes.

The types of assumptions mentioned above were examined through the use of self-report instruments. Boyd said,

> The responses on the self-report instrument are a descriptive configuration of the individual within the ego-stage theoretical framework. This is how the individual views himself. In a manner of speaking these responses give us a self-protrait. (Boyd, 1974, p.25)

In this study the student's responses to statements about him/herself concerning interrelationships and intrarelationships porvided a "self-portrait" of ABE/ASE students.

Instruments

The Self-Description Questionnaire

The instrument used was developed by Robert Boyd and subsequently tested for reliability by Boyd and Koskela (1970). It was designed to gather information on an individual's perception of his/her behavior patterns. The original instrument was composed of 160 items and each item was constructed to have a positive or negative valence to the solution of a given ego crisis. Each item was located in one of five fields: physical, societal, interpersonal, familial, or self.

This instrument also employed a pertinency scale to gather data on the level of concern a particular item has for a given subject, and a like-unlike scale to determine the extent to which the subject identified with the statement on the questionnaire. Both scales had a range of 6 possible responses by each subject.

The content validity of this instrument was established by Boyd and Colley in 1966. Boyd and Koskela (1970) established the Self-Description Questionnarire as possessing high internal consistency, reliability and stability measures. Boyd (1970) concluded,

> It would appear, based on these results, that the Self-Description Questionnaire possesses sufficient reliability and validity to warrant further research and to be employed experimentally as an instrument to study ego-stage development among adult populations. (p.13)

Because of the nature of the sample, (e.g. a sample composed of low literates) and practical constraints, (e.g. time limitations), a shorter form of the Self-Description Questionnaire was employed in this study. Boyd argued that this form has two advantages: 1) it focuses on the two fields which are clearly the most central aspects of small groups; and 2) the form is much shorter, i.e., 64 items, and therefore would be a real advantage in terms of the amount of time needed for administration.

Although the items on this instrument were non-technical in language construction and accommodated middle-class language usage, a problem was anticipated in using it with a low-literate population. This problem was controlled for by: 1) revising the language of the questionnaire to be more readable to a low-literate population; 2) placing the revised instrument on audio tape to be administered via taped recording; and 3) pretesting the instrument with a group of ABE/ASE students to assess its effectiveness, clarity, and applicability to such a population.

The Educational Experience Questionnaire

This instrument was developed in the form of an attitude scale. It was designed to assess the students' beliefs and behaviors concerning the extent to which their psychosocial concerns for trust, autonomy, initiative, and industry were facilitated through the educational environment of ABE and ASE classes.

This instrument was also designed to assess the affect that returning to an educational setting has made on the personality of ABE/ASE students. Each statement began with the phrase "Since being in school again," and was designed to focus the subject's attention on two aspects of personality development as they related to the experiences he/she had encountered in the ABE/ASE class or program. These two aspects were: a) the first four stages of Erikson's model; and b) the interpersonal field and self-field as defined by Boyd (1970). The scoring for this instrument was done an a six point, like-unlike scale.

The content and construct validity was established by asking a panel of five graduate students and two ABE/ASE teachers to assess a pool of 120 potential items. They were asked to comment on each statement's clarity and language usage. After evaluating the responses from these individuals a group discussion was held to clarify conflicting points of view.

Based upon the input of these persons, the statements were revised. A panel of three judges, consisting of three professors, was then asked to rank the statements in terms of their applicability to measure the variables under study. From these rankings and feedback, 48 statements were selected to form the final instrument. To control for the inter-reliability of the judging procedure, each statement was placed on the front of index cards. The stage and valence of Erikson's model, the

field, and the weight for each statement was placed on the back of the cards. Two experts in this field of study were asked to judge the content and construct validity of each statement. Those statements not receiving 100 percent agreement between the two judges and the researcher were revised and the procedure described above was repeated. The reliability of the instrument is discussed later in this paper.

Sample

The sample was drawn from tnree vocational technical districts in the state of Wisconsin. It was drawn in two phases. The first phase was conducted to test the reliability of the two instruments and the applicability of the instruments to a population of ABE/ASE students. The second phase was conducted after the data collection process of the first phase was analyzed and found to be adequate.

The sample consisted of 72 ABE/ASE students. These students were enrolled in ABE/ASE classes being conducted in the state of Wisconsin. They ranged in age from 16 to 70, and represented a variety of racial groups, e.g., Black Americans, White Americancs, Puerto Ricans, Mexican Americans, etc. A total of 7 different programs participated in the study.

Reliability of the Instruments

The analysis of variance, item analysis technique developed by Frank Baker (1965) was applied to the data to test the internal consistency of two instruments. The reliability coefficients computed using this technique were all above .90. The R for the like-unlike scale of the "Self-Description Questionnaire" was .93, for the pertinecy scale .97, and for the Educational Experience Questionnaire .93.

Findings

The Like-unlike scale was used to determine the percentage of students in the sample who resolved ego-stages either positively or negatively. The results showed that the percentage of students who had positive ego-stage resolutions was higher than the percentage who had negative resolutions for the stages of autonomy, industry, identity, intimacy, generativity, and integrity. The percentage of the students who had negative ego-stage resolutions was higher than the percentage who had positive resolutions for the stages of trust and initiative.

The "pertinency" scale was employed in this study to determine which of the first four stages in Erikson's model most concerned the students in the sample. The results from the pertinency scale showed that the percentage of students who had high pertinent concerns was larger than the percentage who had low-pertinent concerns for the stages of trust and industry. Also, the percentage of students who had low pertinent concerns was larger than the percentage with high pertinent concerns for the stages of autonomy and initive.

The "Educational Experience Questionnaire" was used to determine the extent to which the students sampled felt their psychosocial concerns for the first four stages of Erikson's model were either negatively or postively encouraged through the educational environment of ABE/ASE classes. The results from this instrument showed that the most positive educational influence of the four stages considered was developing autonomy and the least positive was on developing initiative. The students rated the overall postitive educational influence to be either intermediate or great. The most negative educational influence was found to be on developing initiative and the least negative was on developing industry. The overall negative educational influence was rated by students as being either intermediate or minimal.

Conclusion

The results of the study permit several conclusions to be drawn about the psychosocial characteristics of ABE/ASE students and the perceptions these students had of the effects of their educational experiences on trust, autonomy, initiative and industry. Because of the limitations in the sampling procedure, the conclusions should be valid only for the students and programs that participated in the study. For other ABE/ASE students and programs these conclusions are only suggestive.

In view of the major findings, several observations can be made: 1) this research tends to question the conclusions of the authors in the background literature (Anderson and Niemi, 1969; Kavale and Lindsey, 1977) who descrive ABE/ASE students as having a self-concept of dependency and lacking a positive sense of industry; and 2) this research indicates support for the conclusion of the authors in the literautre (Anderson and Niemi, 1969; Hastings, 1968) who describe ABE/ASE students as being mistrusting and lacking a positive sense of initiative.

The findings allow several conclusions to be drawn about the self-perceived psychosocial characteristics of ABE/ASE students and their educational effects:

- A large majority of the students enrolled in ABE/ASE programs tend to view themselves as being mistrusting and have a tendency to want to change this self-image;
- A majority of ABE/ASE students tend to see themselves as being autonomous and are satisfied with this self-image;
- Of the students who attend ABE/ASE programs, a majority tend to perceive themselves as lacking initiative because of excessive guilt. These individuals also have a tendency to be satisfied with this self-perception.
- A majority of ABE/ASE students perceive of themselves as having a positive sense of industry and want to either further develop their industriousness or become less industrious.

- The educational programs that enroll ABE/ASE students generally do a good job of promoting the positive psychosocial development of their students and controlling the negative influences that could hinder psychosocial development. The programs are doing a better job of promoting the development of positive autonomy than they are of promoting positive initiative.

- ABE/ASE programs are not doing as good a job of encouraging positive initiative, or of discouraging the educational influences on negative initiative, as they are for the other three ego-stages considered in the study.

Implications

The study's conclusions imply that ABE/ASE teachers and programmers can improve the psychosocial characteristics of students. Teachers can bring about this improvement by focusing their attention on those stages in Erikson's model that a majority of the students in the sample resolved more negatively than positively. Several general suggestions are made in this section that could help teachers develop further, the psychosocial self-images of their students.

First, teachers should attempt to establish classroom environments that seek to help students become increasingly trustworthy. Rogers (1961) suggested the key to establishing a trusting relationship with another person is to be presented to the other person in such a way that you will be preceived as being trustworthy and as being dependable or consistent in some deep sense. Teachers can, therefore begin to influence the level of trust in students by providing a positive role model of trusting person.

Second, a firmly developed sense of positive initiative is needed to build self-confidence and self-esteem. These concepts are essentials to the development of a well-rounded personality. A majority of ABE/ASE students do not yet feel the need to develop their sense of initiative. Therefore, teachers and programmers should take the responsibility of providing educational settings that encourage initiative. Since the stage

of initiative is dominated by the intrusive mode, teachers can better encourage the development of this stage by encouraging students to start the projects in which they are interested. The emphasis should be on starting the projects and not on their completion.

Third, the study points out that one of the most difficult problems ABE/ASE programs face in developing the psychosocial characteristics of students is in encouraging positive initiative and discouraging the influence of negative initiative. This conclusion implies a difficult policy question. That is, "Should ABE/ASE teachers encourage students to compete and be aggressive?" In my opinion, this is an important question. My experiences with ABE/ASE programs indicate a general policy exists in which the competitiveness and aggressiveness that it takes to build initiative is usually discouraged in ABE/ASE classes. After a critical analysis of this policy and its effects, a new policy might be implicated that would favor some forms of classroom competition.

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APPENDIX I

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
VIII MATURITY								EGO INTEGRITY VS. DISPAIR
VII ADULTHOOD							GENERATIVITY VS. STAGNATION	
VI YOUNG ADULTHOOD						INTIMACY VS. ISOLATION		
V PUBERTY AND ADOLESCENCE					IDENTITY VS. ROLE CONFUSION			
IV LATENCY				INDUSTRY VS. INFERIORITY				
III LOCOMOTOR-GENITAL			INITIATIVE VS. GUILT					
II MUSCULAR-ANAL		AUTONOMY VS. SHAME, DOUBT						
I ORAL SENSORY	BASIC TRUST VS. MISTRUST							

An Alternative Program for Attaining Adult Literacy

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On a world-wide basis we must judge the current system of reducing the number of adult illiterates a failure. What is true for the world at large is also true for the United States. Although statistics in adult education are somewhat liable to suspicion, they are a reasonably useful indicator of how well we are dealing with the important task of teaching functional literacy to those adults who need it. UNESCO "Adult Education: Information Notes", No. 3, 1978 reports 742,000,000 illiterates among people fifteen years or older, adding "... should present trends be maintained, the absolute number of illiterates will continue to increase, from 742,000,000 in 1970 to 884,000,000 in 1990."[1] Indeed, in 1978 UNESCO, which has in the past awarded two prizes to nations making outstanding advances in the reduction of illiteracy, did not award any.

According to the 1970 United States census, there are in our nation more that 19,000,000 functional illiterates over the age of 25. A more recent study carried on at the University of texas,[2] using different techniques and differenct criteria, reported that 20% of the adult poplation reads with difficulty, and is not fully functional in such areas as occupational knowledge, consumer economics, government and law, health, community resources, and in computation. This has been widely translated as meaning that these adults do not have the skills of the average fifth grade child.

It is time to consider an alternative system of adult basic education. The system proposed herein, called an aural-oral-visual system, is offered as a useful model, to be built into a comprehensive total system using

some aspects of the current system.

What is the current system to eliminate adult illiteracy? It is a patchwork of national, state, local governmentally-supported efforts, bolstered by another patchwork system of voluntary teaching of adults. These voluntary actions are desirable, at times, inspired, and to be encouraged, but they are simply so few that they can not, even added to the other tax-supported efforts, make an appreciable dent in the mass.

It becomes clear at once to even the casual investigator of adult illiteracy that there is a considerable problem of preciseness of definition. For example, the United States Census Bureau defines an illiterate person as one who is "not able to both read and write a simple message either in English or any other language."[3] But the Census Bureaus also reports on persons who have not completed the eighth grade, without commenting on their ability to perform the Bureau's test of literacy. Are they all literate? Some certainly are not.

However defined, there is ample evidence to be found in the huge numbers, even though they may not be consistent, that our nation has more people unable to function fully as citizens than it can afford. For example, a study by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare in 1972, May 11, reported through the United Press that some "1,000,000 teen-agers cannot read or write at even a fourth-grade level". These are young people between the ages of twelve and seventeen, and the study of them covered a five-year period, ending in 1970. As expected, girls perform better than boys in these test, and whites better than blacks. But only part of these age groups are among those reported on by the New York Times, Thursday, October 1975, under the headline "23 MILLION IN U.S. FOUND ILLITERATE". This was the report of the APL study done at Austin, Texas, and previously mentioned.

What is the current system? It can be said to have begun early with the benevolences of many Christian workers who taught their own fellow colonists, and some Indians, the fundamentals of reading and writing. It continued as a volunteer activity of largely religious groups and still makes its contribution, small though the numbers may be. One recalls the names of Laubach, Tressler, and other in this connection.

At the federal level, money for adult basic education became available in 1964 under the auspices of the Economic Opportunity Act (Public Law 88-452). After that, support for a.b.e. came from the Adult Basic Education Act, Public Law 89-750, with a minimum allotment of $100,000.00 in each state, regardless of population. One might pause to recall that in a state such as Pennsylvania, with more than 300,000 illiterates, the minimum per capita expenditure from such funding would seem not to offer a great deal of hope for improvement of conditions!

Nothing said here is designed to disparage or depreciate the efforts of all who have contributed to the current effort. The establishment of a National Advisory Council on Adult Education to the President of the U.S.A. speaks well for their effort. The 1972 report of this Council called for "... the immediate development of an expanded and comprehensive Adult Education Act." But by the most generous evaluation, we must candidly admit that our total effort for relieving adult illiteracy in this nation is relatively ineffectural. The total number of students in a.b.e. programs under the public laws for this purpose have climbed slowly less than doubling in the years from 1969 to 1972, for example -- and slowly since then. The total number of students separated from the programs in all states after they enrolled are disturbing; those taking jobs of any kind are far below most expectations, and those who drop for "Lack of Interest" or "Other" reasons are disturbingly high.

The current system on which we depend, and which itself increasingly depends upon Federal funding, is too little, and threatens to be too late in view of the political climate, the increasing anomie, and the complex post-industrial culture which strains human tolerance to its limits in the best of times, and threatens bloody reaction in its worst. What have we sought through this system which we have developed?

Paul Bergevin, among others, saw years ago the need to learn throughout life, and saw literacy as indispensable in this learning. This is conventional literacy we have been, and are now, striving for. It is believed:

> To help the learner achieve a degree of happiness and meaning in life.
>
> To help the learner understand himself, his talents and limitations, and his relationship with other persons.
>
> To help adults recognize and understand the need for lifelong learning.
>
> To provide conditions and opportunities to help the adult advance in the maturation process spiritually, culturally, physically, politically, and vocationally.
>
> To provide, where needed, education for survival, in literacy, vocational skills, and health measures.[4]

What will indeed bring these blessings is not literacy per se, but the knowledge, the skills, changed attitudes, increased awareness which conventional literacy helps to bring. And it is all this which can be achieved by far greater numbers at less cost, and more quickly by the proposed AOV system. This system aims at improving knowledge, skills, awareness and attitudes by a major amount <u>before</u> literacy, but seeks to have the adult learner decide for himself when he needs and is ready to

break out of his cell of illiteracy into even greater learning.

The United States Army has been more limited and pragmatic in its goals, dealing more with the immediate matter of preparing soldiers to read orders and other matter related to survival and efficiency in war. There is, of course, mention of beneficial carry-over to survivors in civilian afterlife, but is incidental.[5]

Even as the world celebrated Thirteenth International Literacy Day, September 8, 1978, it was sobered by the increasing numbers of adults who are unable, and apparently in many cases, unwilling to read. There is long been an unwarranted belief that if a person can read, he will read, and therefore learn. This belief should be shaken by a Gallup poll reported in 1973, based on a study the year before, that 56% of American adults have never completed reading a single book outside of school! One may reason, or course, that this poll deals with the total group; things are different with more educated people. But a 1967 study of high school social studies teachers in the State of Indiana reported that members of this group were reading an average of less than one book every five years. Of course, not all learning is in books, but the report does give one pause.

The Alternative Model: Aural-Oral-Visual (AOV)

An alternative model to the Federal-State-L.E.A. + Volunteer model currently in use is here proposed as having potential for much greater effectiveness and efficiency. In this model, learning occurs through a combination of the aural, the oral, and the non-word visual. It does not completely replace the traditional system, however, but is to be meshed into it to use those aspects of it which are most useful. The objectives of both systems are substantially the same, although in the AOV System the learner is expected to take increasingly greater responsibility for

his learning.

There is one major difference, however. The AOV System does not begin with the idea of first teaching the adult to read and write. It begins by teaching the adult how to learn from the System, and from his educative culture (any culture is educative if the learner makes it so), and gradually leads him to the condition of deciding that he really needs and wants to learn to read and write with greater effect, speed and ease. The AOV System makes use of the broadcast media (radio and television) in addition to, wherever possible, cable TV video recorders, and home computers. "Talk-back" learning by mail (distance learning) is possible via low-cost, simple audio-recorders, plus learning stations, not unlike the British Open University Study Centres in which live tutors and assistants to the students are available on certain days.

One important reason for the low rate of adult illiterate participation in current system is that it is humiliating to admit, by one's presence in class, that one is indeed illiterate. But the AOV System is based on content -- not reading and writing, and can be largely accomplished in the home.

One potential of the AOV System is immediately seen; it can reach virtually all of the adults in the area, compared with the restricted outreach of the current school-based system. This will affect the dismal performance of the current system im reaching so few of those who need help. In 1979, Pennsylvania had, for example, enrolled in a class 1.13% of those adults (50% of the total adults in the state) who had not finished high school. And when one considers that Pennsylvania spent only .0004% of its total budgeted educational money on remedial adult education, one gets a fair picture of the failure of the current system. (Data courtesy the Pennsylvania Department of Education.)

The AOV System is devised by persons who understand the differences between pedagogy and andragogy. The current system of adult basic education was designed by pedagogic-minded people, with all of the limitations such thinking implies for adult learners. The andragogic-minded educator involves the learners in planning and carrying on their education, in curriculum, methods, examination and evaluation, and revision. Indeed, the andragogic-minded educator often uses the "students" as teachers of each other, depending on their experiential learning.

The fact that the world has not yet seen an AOV System in place should not deter the development and testing of one. In earlier times there was a partial demonstration of widespread, community-based adult education of major magnitude in the 1920's when Mustafa Kemal Attaturk brought Turkey into the Western world. In 1928 he led the government in discarding the Arabic alphabet in favor of Roman for the writing of Turkish, modernized the language by reducing its dependence on Persian and Arabic, introduced the metric system, and adopted many Western modes of thought, of dress, and culture. A partial each-one-teach-one system was used, with soldiers, government officials, priests and teachers all teaching where and when they could; in shops, on streets, in governmental offices, police barracks, and the like. There was little distinction between teacher and learner often, but as signs for barber shops, traffic, railway stations and the like began to change, the interest in learning increased. True, there was a degree of compulsion that we would not want in our system, but once the decision to change was made, events pushed people to learn. There was no broadcasting, no prepared texts of major importance--only the decision to get on with it. Despite far from optimum conditions, national learning took place to a degree heretofore unknown.

This community-centered focus is the common element; the AOV System would operate as a community system with a great deal of local autonomy, which is necessary to be consistent with learner-directed adult basic education.

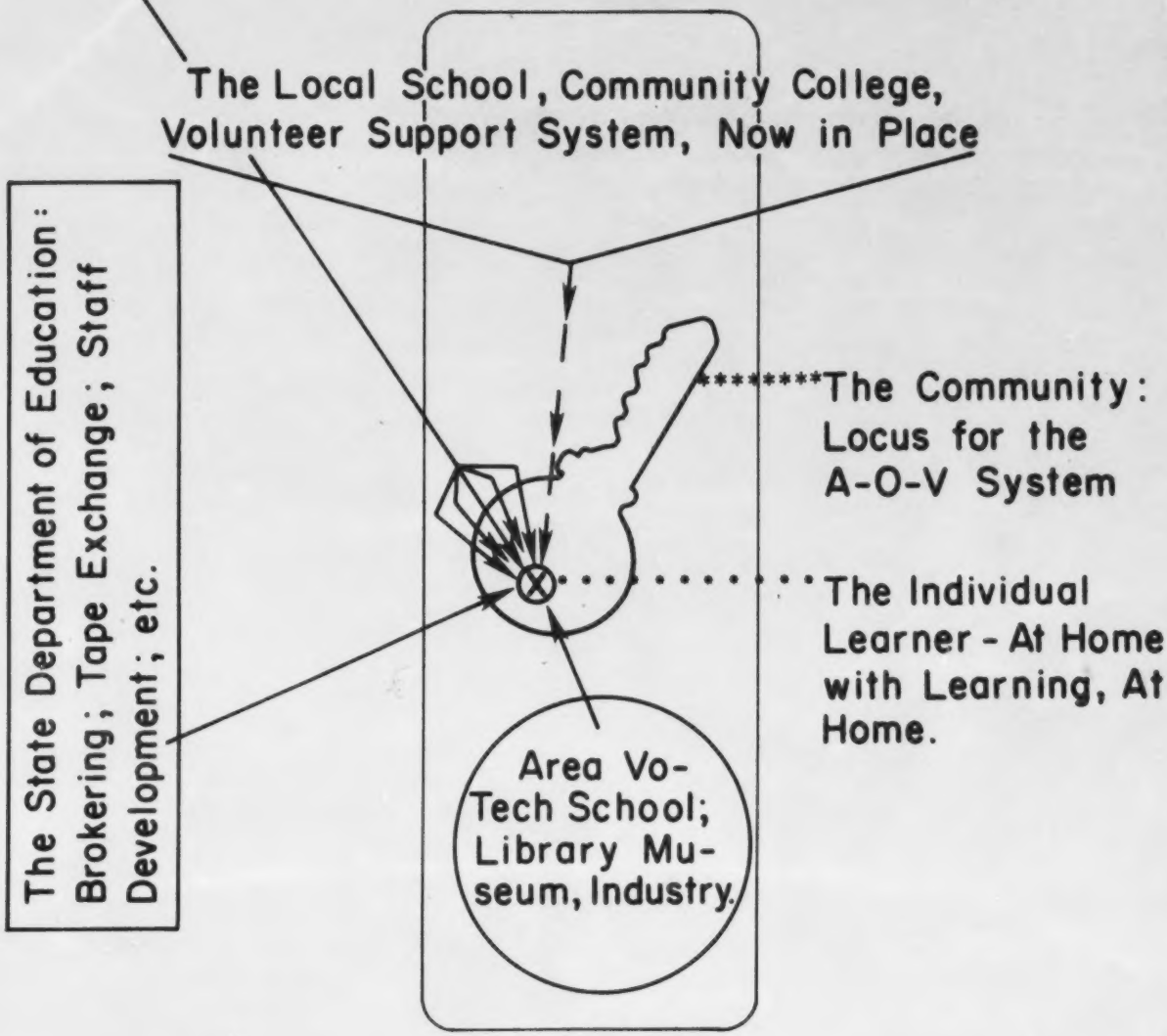
The diagram following is a rough representation of the system, with obvious parts reduced for simplification. It puts the learner at the center, and brings to bear the services of the new system as well as the old. It begins with the aural-oral, and the non-word visual, moving to the verbal symbol as the individual students desire. No one is pushed into reading and writing, but make natural movement into it, as the understanding of the content requires.

As will be shown on the chart, the individual adult learner must in most cases function totally in his home community, since removal to outside locations for literacy training not only marks him, but takes away the supporting and reassuring surroundings of which he is a part. Under the AOV System, the resources become available to the person, not only in his community, but in his home, until he is ready to go outside for what he wants. And what he wants is not literacy training per se, but further learning of a vocational or recreational nature. The efforts of the Federal, state and local governments, and other agencies, therefore, sustain the learner in the educative community.

If the subject of interest for a student is, for example, small engine repair, or care of the homebound older adult, the visual/oral presentation will cover the material at a serious level, making natural progression from the simple to the more complex. Real objects to be used will be shown and described orally. In later, repeated sequences, the work-symbol will be introduced, and finally the entire descriptive or explanatory sentence will be shown. For example, the tools may be first

TELEVISION:
Open-Air, Cable,
Recorded.

DIAGRAM OF THE AURAL-ORAL-VISUAL SYSTEM OF REDUCING ILLITERACY AMONG ADULTS


The Local School, Community College, Volunteer Support System, Now in Place
The State Department of Education: Brokering; Tape Exchange; Staff Development; etc.
The Community: Locus for the A-O-V System
The Individual Learner - At Home with Learning, At Home.
Area Vo-Tech School; Library Museum, Industry.

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shown: two sizes of screwdrivers, slot-type, and two Phillips-head; one pair small-nosed pliers; a time light; and a socket wrench. After the visual-oral-aural introduction, these items begin to appear with the appropriate words-symbols, or names. Next the action is described: "Using the smaller slot-type screwdriver, remove the air filter from the carburetor." For later sequences, the aural-oral-visual is supplemented by words superimposed, so that the learner sees the entire thought, or description of action, in script-written words. This sentence remains on screen for copying and correction. When it is necessary for the learner to be able to read certain limited material -- temperature charts, instructions for handling equipment, etc., there will be learning of those words, with supporting visuals to guarantee understanding. This is the frequently-repeated and easily-available introduction of the learner to reading and writing. There will be elements of the program which are similar in nature to Sesame Street or The Electric Company, but the content will be mature, and there will be less intent to entertain. This will guarantee the dignity and "face" of the adult learner, for he is learning about something of substance in his and the world's eyes, something appropriate to his life role. Getting certain terminology down in words is just a natural part of it. Learning to reduce oral language to written form, and retrieve it by reading is, thereby, changed from the all-in-all to a mere incident in learning something appropriate to being a woman or man in one's world.

In a limited sense, the widespread use of the AOV System could bring us back to the Golden Age of Greece, where Socrates and Aristotle held far-ranging discussions in the streets and the Academy, drawing from adult citizens ideas and greater understanding on the vital, complex ideas of their day. And what were their problems are, in essence, still

ours. But then, as now, too few citizens have the luxury of time to be involved in the life of ideas. They had to till the earth, herd the flocks, spin the wool, and fight the battles. But today, during the free hours, using modern technology, we can catch the interest of the adult in things, ideas, processes, and through them, lead unlettered adults to literacy.

Footnotes

[1]UNESCO "Adult Education: Information Notes", No. 3, 1978, p. 1.

[2]The Adult Performance Level Study, Division of Extension, The University of Texas at Austin, January, 1973.

[3]U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, no. 217. "Illiteracy in the United States: November 1969" (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969, p. 5.)

[4]A Philosophy for Adult Education (New York: Seabury Press, 1967), pp. 30-31.

[5]Goldberg, Samuel. "Army Training of Illiterates in World War II." New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University 1951.

Review of the Research and Literature On Occupationally-Related Literacy

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This review of the literature provides a theoretical framework for understanding the concept of functional literacy as it applies to job training and job performance. It reviews some of the conceptual and operational definitions of functional literacy and how equating them to schooling and school standards has led to confusion. It also reviews research attempts to determine the literacy requirements of job training and job performance and the research which has been conducted to determine the effectiveness of literacy training on raising reading levels and on improving trainablility and job performance.

Definitions of Literacy

To understand the relationship between literacy and job training we must first examine the problems that have confronted experts in attempting to define functional literacy in conceptual and operational terms.

Conceptually, all definitions of functional literacy attempt to divide a given population into groups who can or cannot perform various literacy tasks successfully. In 1951, UNESCO defined a literate person as one "who can, with understanding, both read and write a short simple statement on his everyday life." In 1962 the UNESCO definition was modified to read as Follows:

> A person is literate when he has acquired the essential knowledge and skills to engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning in his group and community, and whose attainments in reading, writing, and arithmetic make it possible for him to continue his own and the community's development. (Harman, 1970, p. 226)

Many experts would distinguish between the 1951 and 1962 standards by

applying the first to distinguish between total illiteracy and literacy and applying the second to distinguish between functional illiteracy and functional literacy. Burnett (1966) defines the absolute illiterate as one who may lack knowledge of the alphabet and who is incapable of having even the simplest of ideas communicated to him through the printed page. He defines the functional illiterate as one who has not acquired the basic skills which enable him to engage effectively in all those activities in which literacy is normally assumed in the individual's culture or group. Bormuth (1973) and Harman (1970) support this concept of functional literacy as being manifest in specific behavioral objectives. Northcutt's APL Survey (1974) and Sticht's Job Reading Task Tests (1975) used specific reading requirements to distinguish functional literates from functional illiterates. Lorge (1957) favored independence in learning ability as the prime criterion of functional literacy.

While some consensus exists on a conceptual definition of functional literacy, there is considerably less agreement as to how this should be operationalized. Heding (1967) listed three different criteria that have been used to identify functional illiterates in society. The first is the method used by the Census Bureau until 1940. It involved asking the individual or an acquaintance whether the individual could read or write. As Heding notes, this procedure was unreliable because it depended on the candor of the individual questioned and on how the census taker operationalized the concept. A second method was adopted by the Census Bureau in 1940. It consisted of defining literacy in terms of years of school completed. To maintain a relationship between the pre and post 1940 standards, the Census Bureau conducted a study which showed that of those who had completed four years of school, only one in twenty

was illiterate. They, therefore, classified anyone with more than four years schooling as literate and, for unexplained reasons, they classified those who had completed less than five years schooling as functionally illiterate. The Army used the fourth grade completion criterion as a preliminary screen for illiteracy during World War II. For a long time, the fourth and fifth grade levels were accepted as meaningful by many educators despite evidence that these standards lacked empirical validity. Brunner (1960, p. 220) stated flatly, "now we know the best single index of reading ability is the grade of school completed." Lorge (1957) asserted that years of school completed was a good approximation to a fixed point on the literacy scale. While years of school completed may be a convenient source of easily measurable data for statistical or census purposes, several experts maintain that it has little relationship to actual reading ability (Bormuth, 1973; Havrilevsky, 1969; and Hilliard, 1963), The third method for assessing literacy mentioned by Heding is administration of a standardized test and establishment of a cutoff score to dichotomize the population into groups of functional literates and functional illiterates. Until recently, this was done by equating some specified grade level on a norm-referenced reading achievment test to a standard of illiteracy or functional illiteracy. The literature of the fifties and sixties generally cited the fourth grade reading level as the demarcation point between illiteracy and literacy and to the fifth grade level as the threshold for functional literacy. The choice of the fourth and fifth grade levels is undoubtedly due in part to blind acceptance of the standards established by the Census Bureau and the Army in 1940. Witty (1958) speaks of consensus on this standard. But there is also a rational reason for chosing the fourth grade level as a departure point. As Kotinsky (1941) observed, it is rooted in the normal development pattern

of reading skills in the school system. At approximately the fourth grade level the normal child achieves a level of reading independence that will assure continued proficiency given continued stimulus to read and write, but Kotinsky goes on to say, "It is an unwarranted assumption to believe that even tested fourth-grade reading ability on the part of a twenty to thirty year old gives the same assurance of ability to go on that it does in the case of a child" (p. 10).

Brown (1970) questions the validity of applying test standards designed for children to measure reading ability in adults. Bormuth, (1973, pp. 11-12) asserts that "a grade level score does not provide us with any information on just what kinds of real-world reading tasks a person can perform competently." This conclusion is supported by an understanding of the methods used to develop tests for children in the school system (Farr, 1970, 1971; MacGinnitie, 1973a, 1973b; Carver, 1970). As grade level of the tested population increases, the emphasis shifts from measuring the mechanical skills of processing words for meaning to the more abstract and complex skills such as making inferences and reading critically that are important in academic development but not in everyday reading tasks. In order to achieve the spread in scores necessary to generate variance required for reliability, all norm-referenced tests contain a sampling of skills from levels above and below the achievement level expected of the target group. In attempting to interpret the score of an adult on a test normed for children one is not able to determine whether the score was due to inability to perform higher order skills, which may be greater than the requirements of daily life, or whether a poor score is due to a general deficiency in skills across the range of requirements.

Harman also cites a decision of the 1970 conference on planning strategies for a national "Right to Read" movement to base assessments of literacy

on requiremnts of daily living rather than grade equivalents. This procedure has been adopted in several recent attempts to better define the literacy problem. Louis Harris and Associates employed this technique in a national survey of adult reading ability in 1970. Although they did not attempt to define precisely a level of "functional literacy," they did note that four percent of the population suffered from severe deficiencies in functional reading ability. Northcutt (1974) carried this one step farther in the Adult Performance Level Survey in which he defined functional literacy as a two dimensional problem involving five functional knowledge areas with levels of functional competency for each of several skills (reading, writing, computation, etc.) in each of the five areas. He also attempted to equate performace on the various reading tasks with standards of life success. While these two efforts represent progress in the direction of defining literacy in terms of everyday reading tasks than an individual can or cannot perform, there remain problems in attempting to apply these standards universally. As Griffith and Cervero (1977) and Acland (1976) pointed out, the reading tasks selected are based on someone's subjective opinion as to what reading tasks "literate people" should be able to perform. In addition, Northcutt's definitions of successful versus unsuccessful people was based on value judgments which lack universal acceptance. Sticht, Caylor, Kern, and Fox (1971) limited their definition of functional literacy to occupational reading skill requirements in four specific job categories in the Army.

Another study related to the diagnosis of functional literacy was described by Gallant (1970). She attempted to develop an instrument which would measure reading abilities over a series of increasingly complex steps, from recognizing letters of the alphabet to critical reading. She was unable to carry the test beyond skills required at approximately third grade

level because further measuremment involved abilities to handle complex language and concept loads. This suggests that functional literacy determination beyond a low level of mechanical decoding ability must be related to specific literacy tasks rather than to general reading skills.

Occupational Reading Requirements

A parallel development to the attempts to define and measure functional literacy has been the attempt to assess the reading requirements of job training and job performance.

In April of 1941, the armed services established the fourth grade reading level as the minimum acceptable level for induction. Goldberg (1951, p. 52) reported on validation studies conducted at Fort Belvoir, Virginia which found that fourth-grade reading ability represented "a reasonable critical level for selectees." The report provides insufficient data to support the validity of this conclusion. Following World War II, manpower planning concerns led to additional consideration of the minimum literacy requirements of the services. In 1950, the Personnel Policy Board studied the question and found that:

> Illiteracy is not an acceptable criterion. Many individuals who cannot read or write are capable of absorbing training, while others who can read and write lack the capacity to indicate progress in training. (Army, 1965, p. 106)

A study conducted under the direction of the Assistant Secretary of the Army between 1954 and 1957 (Army, 1965, pp. 114-122) failed to establish requred reading levels for military occupational specialities. The researchers observed that there was too much variance in requirements from one duty position to another in the same occupational specialty and that literacy requirements increased with increases in rank.

Heding (1967, pp. 124-126) suggested that the level of reading required for training was higher than the level of reading required for the job.

Postman (1970) considered that the importance of reading was over-emphasized by the system. He estimated that very few jobs required literacy beyond the fifth grade level. Mockovak (Air Force, 1974) and Duffy (Navy, 1975) estimated military job reading requirements based on the rated readability of field and technical manuals used on the job and in training. Both cited readability levels ranging from 10.5 to 14,0, and they observed that average trainee reading ability was well below that level. Since readability formulas are often used to determine the reading requirements of training, it is worth digressing momentarily to note certain conceptual limitations of this method.

Kling and Pratt (1977) note that the usefulness of readability formulas depends on thier construct and predictive validity. Construct validity depends on the method of determining reading comprehension. The two most common methods used are the McCall-Crabbs graded reading passages and close scores. The construct validity of either of these procedures applied to technical manuals has not been established. In addition, the arguments cited previously against the use of reading grade levels in measuring reading ability of adults would also apply to the construct validity of readability formulas. An even greater limitation is that readability formula are based primarily on structural factors such as length of sentences and average number of syllables in words. Farr (1969) notes that readability formulas do not take into account the following factors: (1) conceptual difficulty, (2) organization or arrangement of the material, (3) format and use of illustrations, (4) multiple meanings of words, (5) the fact that unusual words may make a sentence clearer, or (6) that individuals have differenct levels of interest and competence in different areas. Many of these factors apply to the normal design and use of technical manuals. Evidence refuting the predictive validity of readability formulas comes from

the General Accounting Office study of 1977, which noted that despite large gaps between the readability levels of the manuals and the reading ability of trainees, most were able to comprehend the material due to the repetitive nature of the reading assignments and tasks.

HumRRO's Project REALISTIC (Sticht, Caylor, Kern, and Fox, 1971) used a concurrent validity model to study the relationship of reading, listening, and arithmetic skills to measures of job performance in the Army. They determined the reading tasks required in four different occupational specialties by interviewing personnel working in those specialties, and constructed Job Reading Task Tests to measure performance on those specific reading tasks. They compared reading ability with measures of job knowlege, job performance, and supervisor ratings. They found no significant correlation between supervisor ratings and reading, but they found positive correlations between performance on the reading test and job knowledge and job performance. They also found that good readers tended to use written materials more frequently on the job than poor readers. The basic method used by HumRRO provides an effective model for the determination of literacy requirements of job training and job performance. As Sticht realized, however, they introduced a conceptual weakness in equating performance on the JRTT to reading grade levels measured on standarized reading tests rather than to proficiency on performance objectives.

In 1977, the General Accounting Office submitted a report to the Secretary of Defense which found that poor readers, compared to the average enlisted population: (1) have higher discharge rates, (2) experience more difficulties in training, (3) perform less satisfactorily on the job, and (4) lack potential for career advancement. They did

note, however, that there was no hard evidence to show that these deficiencies were caused by poor reading skills per se.

Larson (1978) used experimental design and post hoc procedures to study the relationship between reading ability and performance in both the basic and advanced phases of military training. He found that reading ability was correlated with performance in the basic phase but not with performance in the advanced phases of training. He suggested that poor performance was probably caused by latent psycho-social factors which contribute to poor performance in both training and reading. The following statement from a 1974 review of literacy programs in the armed services supports this suggestion and summarizes the research on occupational reading requirements:

> It has been very difficult to objectively demonstrate a direct effect of poor reading skills upon job performance, despite the availability of considerable data indicating a number of indirect or contributory relationships. (McGoff and Harding, 1974, p. 6)

Effectiveness of Literacy Training

This section of the literature review is devoted to claims and research findings regarding the effectiveness of literacy training in improving general reading skills and in producing measurable gains in subsequent job training or job performance.

Witty (1966) claims that most adult illiterates are educable and that they can be given the equivalent of a fourth grade education in an amazingly short time. He bases his contention on the success of Army training in World War II, in which trainees starting at the lowest literacy levels attained fourth grade skill in eight weeks. Ginzberg and Bray (1953) have questioned the reliability of this claim, citing evidence that individuals were often certified as literate without pass-

ing the requred tests. Robinson (1966) attributed the Army's apparent success to high motivation, twenty-four hour control, nearly unlimited funding, and a large reservoir of qualified instructors. She also reported that only 10.7 percent of the participants had completed more than four years of school prior to induction. Therefore, the problem addressed by the services in World War II was one of educating the uneducated rather than providing remedial training to the failures of the school system.

Unfortunately neither the Army nor the Navy conducted a formative evaluation of the World War II reading programs, and we are forced to base all claims of effectiveness on post hoc studies conducted by Goldberg (1951), Ginzberg and Bray (1953), and Hagen and Thorndike (1953). All three studies compared graduates of the literacy programs with control groups of literate personnel and found that the program graduates performed less adequately on such indices as favorable discharges, promotions, disciplinary actions, lost time, and medical discharges. Each of these studies suffered from the lack of a comparable control group and the incompleteness of military records for making performance evaluations. On the whole, however, it was asserted that the illiterates performed well if not always at the same level of proficiency as the average serviceman. A problem with these studies is there is no way of estimating how the men would have performed without literacy training from the data available.

In 1954, the Army conducted an experimental evaluation of literacy training effects on performance in Basic Training (Goffard, 1956). The researchers divided a population of marginally literate trainees into test and control groups and provided literacy training to the experimental groups. The test was conducted in six phases with the method of training

modified slightly for each different phase. They compared the performances of the experimental and control groups with each other and with a comparison group of more literate trainees attending the same basic training program. The study showed that the more literate trainees consistently outperformed both test and control groups by five to ten percent on performance tests and by thirty to fifty percent on written tests. They found that literacy training for the experimental group produced only slight gains on both proficiency and written tests when compared with the control group. These gains were reported to be statistically significant but of little practical value. They found that literacy training had no measureable effect on attitudes or subsequent job performance.

Using similar experimental design research methods, Larson (1978) found that literacy instruction had no effect on attrition from three different advanced occupational training programs and had little or no effect on the amount of time requred to complete training in these Army courses. The small but significant effect observed in one course was attributed to mastery of certain specific literacy tasks taught during literacy instruction and used repetitively during the occupational training course.

Other studies have found little in the way of positive effects from literacy training programs. Fisher (1971) compared performances of personnel who achieved the fifth grade graduation standard in Army Prep Training to the performance of a group that failed to achieve that standard in APT and found no significant differences on most indices of performance. Greenberg (1974) noted that remedial reading courses were conducted for Project 100,000 men without conclusive evidence of successful effects on student's military careers. Harman (1970) stated that there was no direct

evidence of a cause and effect relationship between participation in adult basic education and subsequent achievemnts.

Other studies indicate too that short term literacy programs produce only slight gains in reading achievement. Kling (1967) found no significant increases in reading, arithmetic, or language skills over a three month period in a Job Corps literacy program. He concluded that "nineteen years old may be too old for compensatory education." Kent (1973) surveyed 2300 students from 200 classes in 90 adult basic education programs in fifteen states over an eighteen month period. He administered the Tests of Adult Basic Education to the group in January and again in May of 1972 and found an average reading gain of 0.5 grade levels and an average math gain of 0.3 grade levels. Twenty-five percent of the population gained over one reading grade level, while one-third showed no gain or a net loss. He found gains to be unrelated to race, age, previous schooling, or regularity of attendance in ABE classes. Kent, Bishop, Byrnes, and Herzog (1971, p. 69) reported that a mean of 90 hours of instruction was required to raise reading scores one grade level in job-related reading programs. Their results are somewhat unreliable due to the variety of tests used to measure gains.

A more recent study conducted in this field was the General Accounting Office's 1977 report to the Secretary of Defense. The GAE reviewed results of remediation programs in the Army, Navy, Air Force and Marine Corps. Based on reports from eleven of fifteen training centers the GAO found that a total of 5,800 recurits participated in remedial reading programs during 1975 at a total instructional cost of $3,563,092 (pp. 12-13). They found average reading grade level gains of 1.8 for the Navy, 1,9 for the Navy, 2.2 for the Marine Corps, and 2.3 for the Air Force. The GAO noted, how-

ever, that "the results were somewhat misleading and might be inflated due to testing phenomena that tend to overstate such scores." The GAO suggested that programs not geared to functional work requirements might be less successful than programs which are geared toward the individual's occupational specialty because of the latter's immediate application to military assignments. Data from two military literacy programs supported this conclusion in that a sample of participants from a Navy program lost an average of half their program gains within to to seven weeks after completing the program, and in a special study of selected Air Force program graduates, half lost from one to three reading grade levels within six months. The GAO noted the lack of follow-up on long term performance of reading program participants. The report concluded that "these brief one-time efforts, as presently structured, do not substantially reduce illiteracy."

In most of the programs reviewed above, the goal was to raise general reading ability to some specified level in order to meet a preconceived literacy requirement. The 1965 Office of Education study of manpower training and educationally deficient adults and Kent's 1971 study on job-related adult basic education show that few civilian programs have related literacy training to specific job training needs. In two separate cases, however, program directors integrated literacy training into a job training program with apparent success. Brazziel (1966) and Brooks (1966) reported separately on the Norfolk State College Experiment in which 200 disadvantaged persons in the Norfolk area were randomly assigned to four different treatments. Group A received vocational training combined with literacy training; Group B received only vocational training; Group D received counseling and job information; and Group C received no treatment.

Literacy training was coordinated with the vocational training program on a day-to-day basis to insure that the literacy instruction was directly related to what the students needed in job training. Group A achieved a reading gain of 1.87 grade levels during the first six months. A follow-up was conducted one year later to determine the effect of the training on employment, salary, and promotions. Group A had significantly and substantially higher achievement than Group B in all three categories. Group B fared substantially better than the other two groups. The Office of Education report on the Tuskeegee Institute Project (1965) showed that reading and math training was more successful when it was directly coordinated with the vocational program requirements in that program as well. The writer stated that he had little doubt that, "once the academic work is intelligently coordinated with the vocational skills, trainees grow faster in both areas." (p. 33)

Summary

Most experts would agree that an individual who is unable to read or write a simple sentence in his or her own language is illiterate. By this standard, the rate of illiteracy in this country has dropped steadily since the census readings of 1870. The 1970 Louis Harris survey and other rescent reliable estimates place the rate of absolute illiteracy at 1 to 1.5 percent. Within this group, the majority are over the age of forty-five with a substantial percentage over sixty. Among the younger unemployed population that is the major target of manpower training, absolute illiteracy is a nearly nonexistent phenomenon because of modern mandatory schooling requirements. The problems of training the total illiterate has been replaced by the problem of training the "functional illiterate."

There is nearly universal belief that "functional illiteracy" exists

and that it is widespread among all age groups of adults. As can be seen from the review of the literature, however, there is no consensus as to what specific reading behavior deficiencies categorize an individual as a functional illiterate. Estimates of functional illiteracy have been based on years of school completed, reading achievement level, and on lack of ability to correctly respond to a group of selected "functional reading requirements." In each case, the objective of the measurement was to roughly dichotomize the population into those who are categorized as functionally literate and those who are not.

Associated with this is a portrayal of the functional illiterate as an individual who is unable to adequately cope with the requirements of daily living and who is umemployable and untrainable for anything above the most menial of occupations. While research has demonstrated a correlation between reading ability and certain measures of successful performance in a variety of functional areas, attempts to relate "failure" directly to the lack of adequate reading skills have been unsuccessful. Military studies have shown that the majority of "functional illiterates' can succeed in a wide range of occupational training programs, albeit with greater difficulty and lower levels of performance in most cases. For the purposes of job training and employment, therefore, the question is not so much a matter of trainable versus untrainable as it is trainable as what extra cost and with what percentage of success. Finally, the literature suggests that brief but highly concentrated literacy training efforts produce only marginal results, and that literacy training is more likely to succeed when integrated with job training.

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Toward A Comprehensive ABE/ESL Instructional Model

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It has been fifteen years since the enactment of federal legislation affecting educational services for undereducated adults. Many good things have happened during that decade and a half. Many people have taken good advantage of Adult Basic Education programs, GED Programs, and English as a Second Language Programs, and the benefits that have accrued to those who have taken full advantage of the service provided under the legislation, while not easily documented, are assumed to have been significant for both the participants in the programs and, subsequently, for society at large.

It is not the purpose of this paper, however, to heap praise on the broad areas of educational concern represented by the terms ABE and GED. Rather, it is my intention to take a critical look at the ESL component of public school continuing and adult education in terms of past practices, probable present practices, and possible future practices in this widely misunderstood area of service. Through a vigorous review of the literature, especially the areas of psycho-and sociolinquistics, plus a profound reexamination of my own long experience and the assumptions that guided that experience, I propose in this paper a comprehensive model for the conduct of instruction in English as a second language in adult education programs as we know them today and as they are likely to remain for the next decade or so.

History

The history of adult education/English as a second language in the U.S. is a long one but really quite an inscrutable one. That is to say, we know that ESL instruction under various rubrics such as "English for the Foreign

Born," "English for New Arrivals", "English for Immigrants", and, of course, "Americanization" has continuously been conducted in this country ever since the last quarter of the nineteenth century-maybe even longer. We know that for a period of about thirty years - 1905 to 1935 thereabouts- the teaching of English as a second language was, most likely, the predominant adult education activity carried on by public schools, especially those in the great cities.[1] What we do not know very much about is what happened in those thousands of classes through which passed millions of learners. We don't know much about how the learners were taught; how often they attended; what the teachers were generally like; how long learners remained in classes; or what degree of proficiency in the English language was either attained by learners (on average) or considered desirable by teachers. And it is a pity that we do not know very much because, I feel, that there is much to be learned from past practice.

I do not wish to belabor our ignorance of the "Golden Age" of adult education ESL, I have already done that on several occasions and in a couple of other publications, but I would like to take a fairly close look at recent practice in the field, concentrating on the era which began in 1964.

From most appearances, although some would vigorously deny this practice in ABE/ESL has largely been guided by ignorance form the inception of the adult education legislation included in the 1964 Economic Opportunity Act and which became the Adult Education Act in 1966. It was, however, the ignorance of innocence. People, teachers and administrators alike, appear to have had little or no idea that teaching English to speakers of other languages was an entirely different activity from teaching reading to illiterate native speakers or from teaching composition and reading to high school equivalency students. Teachers were, and still are in some places, selected for one or any combination of the following hardly justifiable reasons; justi-

fiable, that is, from the point of view of accepted language teaching and learning practice:

1. The teachers possessed elementary certification;
2. The teachers possessed secondary certification; especially in English;
3. The teachers were not necessarily certified but were native speakers of foreign language, preferably Spanish;
4. The teachers were willing; or
5. The teachers expressed interest in pre-Columbian culture and art.

Granted, there was not an abundance of trained ESL instructors available; in fact few administrators seem to have been aware that such training was offered at many institutions around the country and that, indeed, a specialty in teaching English to speakers of other languages existed at all.[2] That is not to say that in the 60's and early 70's there were no pockets of ESL enlightenment in adult education; there were, and San Francisco and New York City in part are two such examples.[3] However, the influence of these two areas on the rest of the country was minimal in the early days of the Act.

Getting back to the problems of those times, the policies of hiring instructors on the bases previously mentioned led to classroom practice in ESL that was unprincipled in the sense that it was not guided by either sound theory or generally accepted language teaching practice. In some cases, classroom texts served as Curriculum guides even though the texts were not appropriate for ESL instruction.[4] In other cases teachers needed to rely entirely on their own devices in their good attempts to provide instruction in the English language. But, again the attempts were guided by principles not necessarily consonant with good foreign language teaching practice. (Maybe it is naive on my part to ask this, but I wonder how many ABE administrators and teachers fail to realize that English is

indeed a foreign language to one enormous lot of people?)

What was happening until fairly recently in ABE/ESL is that teachers and administrators in their earnest desire to improve practice turned more to the broad field of adult education (AEA-NAPCAE) for guidance rather than to the subject matter agencies such as TESOL, or ACTFL.* The Adult Education associations were ill equipped to deal with problems in ESL teaching in its technical and theoretic aspects. Consequently, and perhaps my logic can be seriously questioned here, we have been able to observe a wholesale adoption of principles articulated by Knowles[5] (paraphrased from Dewey[6]) that are entirely attractive but, by themselves, do little or nothing to affect the learning of the English language. The principles of learner direction, individualization, and so on are wonderful in their place, but they are no substitute for sound, thoughtful language teaching practice - they might enhance that practice but they cannot replace it.

I do not wish to imply that practice is not improving; it is, and on inspection of the literature both of Adult Education as a field and TESOL as a field reveals a coming together of the two interest areas. The change is not rapid but it does appear to be steady and I attribute the change to two major influences (there may be more, of course). The first is the National Adult Education Staff Development Project (1972-1975) and its lasting effect on teacher training around the country; and the second is the end of U.S. military involement in Indo-China with the resultant need to harbor the tens of thousands of refugees from that unfortunate subcontinent.

First, the Staff Development Project sponsored under PL 91-230 Section 309. The USOE mandated that the ten administrative regions of the United

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*Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)

States would be funded for the purpose of providing coordinated staff development activities within each Region with constant articulation and exchange among Regions. This program benefitted the ESL cause in adult education because many of the staff development project directors had been committed to a process of seeking out and employing on a regular or consultative basis (or through coordinating effort with other 309 projects) trained experts in the subject matter concerns of ABE/GED. These professionals, in turn, assumed much direct responsibility for teacher training in methods and materials, helping, thus, to upgrade the quality of instruction in their respective subject matter areas including, of course, instruction in English as a second language. Many ESL teacher training positions created at the time of the National Staff Development Project still exist and others have come into being as a direct result of influence of this national effort.

The continuing involvement of ESL professionals in ABE programs assures a slow but steadily growing sophistication with respect to ESL materials and methods among teachers in the field, especially during periods of low teacher turnover. It needs to be noted, however, that the influence on ESL of the Staff Development Project was by no means universal. There still remain large geographic and demographic areas of this country where the need for classroom instruction in ESL is great but where ESL teaching is practiced in a manner that largely violates sound foreign language teaching principles.

The second important influence affecting the practice of teaching ESL in adult education in the U.S. has been the response of the bureaucratic and educational establishments to the needs of the Indo-Chinese refugees who came to these shores following U.S. involvement in the war. A strong component of the resulting program was, of course, the provision of

instruction in English for Indo-Chinese people of all ages either through direct ESL programing or through bilingual educational programs. In order to carry out this effort, the government has wisely looked to the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington D.C. for assistance with the English language component of this massive resettlement program. This policy of seeking out such expertise has brought a new wave of ESL and linguistics talent to the adult education scene. Agencies such as The Bilingual Education Service Centers in Illinois, for example, have provided consultant services to state departments of education and local programs in several important ways such as teacher training, materials development, and cross cultural orientation.

While the work of CAL and its satellites has concentrated largely on the language and cultural orientation problems of the Indo-Chinese, it is my observation that the influence of this work has radiated out to a larger population of non-English speaking people probably through the additional visibility given to ESL as an instructional specialty, within the ABE/GED arena. As a direct result of the increased visibility and the fact that a lot of Indo-Chinese adults have appeared in ABE/ESL programs, many teachers have taken important advantage of the expertise that has been made available through teacher training designed for those who work with the Indo-Chinese.

While teacher training programs, either those influenced by the Staff Development Project or those conducted under the aegis of the Indo-Chinese Refugee program, have not created a strongly professional ABE/ESL teaching population, they have contributed importantly to the improvement of both ESL instruction and instructional materials in adult education programs. However, much more needs to be done and the rest of this paper is devoted to articulating programmatic possibilites for AVE/ESL in the

In other words, I propose to advance a model - a realistic and practical one - for consideration.

Any generalizeable model for Adult Education ESL must take into consideration the positive and negative realities of the field and, wherever possible, must respond to those realities. On the positive side, not listed in order of importance, are these realities:

1. Flexibility in scheduling.
2. Highly motivated learners (or so it is safe to assume).
3. Mature learners who recognize their need for learning English;
4. A teacher population that, for the most part, cares about these learners and wants to serve them well;
5. An English speaking environment from which instruction can be drawn and to which instruction can be realistically and immediately transferred; and,
6. Growing interest in ABE/ESL among ESL professionals along with greater availability of consultative expertise.

There are certainly many more strong points but these stand out im my mind as the major building blocks for a model.

On the other hand, there are some powerfully negative realities that need to be squarely faced:

1. The flexible scheduling alluded to earlier can, in application, be so very flexible that a "class" can be an amorphorus, ever changing, non-entity, allowing for no significant interaction among its transient constituents;
2. Teachers, while well intentioned, are largely unprepared for their tasks, and, in their early days of service, are quite unknowledgeable about the English Language itself and the specifics of the culture around them;
3. While these recent years of sacrifice have been an exception with respect to turnover, teachers in ABE in general have themselves been quite transient and most are still employed on an hourly pay basis;
4. Adult education administrators are not often very sensitive to the special nature of ESL learning, and they fail to provide an environment conducive to ESL learning;

5. The educational range of the population of ABE/ESL learners seems almost unmanageably wide;

6. There are few - very few - instructional or study materials available for the population served. And those which are available are not particularly useful to students although some can be very helpful as teacher resources.

Again, these are only six among many negative realities but they seem - to me at least - to be the most influential.

The Model

The realities, positive and negative, always in mind, the model that is proposed has six essential components which are separated only for analysis but which are intimately interrrelated in practice. The components are:

1. Major assumptions underlying the model and guiding its development.
2. The context in which ESL is taught to adults (administrative).
3. The learner: motivations, innate abilities, etc.
4. The teacher: skills needed.
5. The methods: what should be used.
6. The materials: how they need to be constructed.

1. Major assumptions

The first assumption is certainly not a new one since linguists and language teachers have for years and years known that the learner takes an active part in acquiring a second language. How the learner does this is not known but some insight has been gained through research in second language acquisition. The stated assumption is, regardless of how little is actually known, that the learner makes a major, perhaps <u>the</u> major, contribution to the language learning process.

The second assumption, related to the first, is that adult learners of ESL in the United States are indeed highly motivated and will learn

English.

The third assumption, deriving in large measure from recent studies in language acquisition, allows that adults learn more effectively through contextual understanding, than through rote or rule oriented instruction.[7,8]

The fourth assumption is that despite some recent notions expressing contrary points of view, the English language with its grammar and syntax as well as its vocabulary constitute a major, component of ESL instruction. A concomitant of this assumption is that learners need vigorously to practice those structures. A further concomitant is that, in some important way, teachers need to know or to acquire knowledge about the structures of the English language, at the very least from the fundamental aspect of descriptive linguistics.

A fifth, and singularly important assumption is that sociolinguistic research has a major place in designing ESL curriculum for adults - especially for those in non-collegiate settings.[9,10]

A sixth assumption is that certain Adult Basic Education administrative practices, primarily with respect to open enrollments, are not sacrosanct and can be altered with no violation of ABE admittance requisites.

A seventh and final assumption is that adult ESL learners respond favorable to a visible class structure in both the calendar and internal classroom aspects of structure.

Components of the Model

The administrative or, if you will, environmental context of ABE/ESL presently leaves much to be desired with respect to encouraging an atmosphere in which sound ESL instruction could take place. The rather

slavish adherence to open enrollments found in most places tends to disrupt classes while at the same time claims are made that each individual needs must receive attention. There is not question that individual's learning needs must be attended, and it is admirable that rules and regulations governing the administration of programs conducted under the Act demand that open enrollments be maintained so that no individual be turned away. However, it is quite possible to have both open enrollments while preserving classroom integrity and instructional continuity. I offer the following suggestions; each can be considered in the light of local reality with respect to the size of ESL learner population, the geographic distribution of classes, the availability of instructional staff, etc. All of the following assume ESL classes* are offered on a regularly scheduled basis.

1. In fairly large programs admissions into formal classes should take place once every four weeks say, with class formations depending on assessments derived from existing test. Curriculum, accordingly, is designed in "modules," each module needing roughly four weeks to cover. Most applicants would probably have only a short time (two weeks) to wait for admission into the class. Should this waiting period be administratively (or otherwise) undesirable, each location might have available an "orientation center" wherein new arrivals can, on a reduced hourly attendance schedule, be tested, receive some basic tutorial instruction and/or community orientation. Volunteers who speak the enrollees languages could possible be employed during

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*It is a matter of personal belief (one shared with many others) that ESL learners respond more favorable to classes than to tutorial kinds of instruction because of the opportunities for student interaction and practicle use of the English language where classes are heterogeneous.

this period to help with orientation to the institution and perhaps to the community.

Learners, of course, would be placed into sections formed according to proficiency levels.

II. In programs where the above is not possible due to relatively smaller numbers of learners, classes can be conducted on a regularly scheduled basis with instruction following modular cycles of four weeks or so. Again, a period of "orientation" for newcomers easing them into the appropriate, existing class could take place for about a period of two weeks, or whatever is needed. It is hoped that the orientation would prepare the learner for entry into the appropriate class at the onset of a new four week cycle.

III. Where classes of mixed proficiency are unavoidable formed, the newcomer can enter at an appropriate point after similar "orientation". That is the learner joins, say, the "intermediate" group in a class, when they are beginning a new four week unit or module.*

The purpose underlying these suggestions rests simply with the preservation of continuity of instruction and the encouragement of learner identification with a larger supportive group of people sharing similar learning circumstances. Moreover, the spirit and the letter of the law are adhered to under such a plan, so there is no risk of incurring bureaucratic wrath should such a scheme be adopted.

The Adult ESL Learner

It is difficult, if not downright impossible, to describe a stereotypical adult ESL learner because of the wide variety of people who populate the category. This variety is manifest in factors such as places of origin, native languages and dialects, occupational interests, educational

levels, and on and on. Yet, at the same time that there are great differences within this population, there are also many powerfully influential commonalities which can positively affect their learning of English. (Being an amateur of the philosophy of Peter Drucker, I believe in seeking out strengths and building on those strengths rather than putting undue emphasis on weaknesses or shortcomings.)

The first, most important ingredient and the sine qua non of second language learning is learner motivation. The motivation of which I speak is not some vague abstraction defying definition or demonstration. On the contrary, it is a vital, animated force that sustains the learner on the long, difficult path to second language acquisition. (I emphasize difficult because there is nothing easy about language learning or teaching. It can be stimulating and even fun sometimes, but it is not ever easy. Not ever.) The adult learner of ESL, it can be safely assumed, knows that he or she need to learn the language and clearly understands the reasons why. The learner perceives a real and personal value deriving from the language learning effort. That is why he or she shows up at school the first time and after - to meet the personal and social goals that facility in the English language allows. If motivation is absent, and it must be realistically acknowledged that some are motivated - no learning can take place an ". . . .no amount of skill in language teaching can compensate for the absence of. . .motives on the part of the learner."[11]

Another characteristic that adult ESL learners share is that they all have the ability to learn English as a second language.[12] It might seem unnecessary to make such a statement, but it isn't, really. There are misconceptions extant even among ABE/ESL teachers concerning the ability of adults to learn a foreign language. The myth is often

perpetuated that language learning ability declines from the onset of adolescence and that trying to acquire a second language in adulthood is an exercise in frustration. It is true in many instances that adult learners will be troubled by pronunciation in the new language and they will probably not ever sound like native speakers of the language; but that is probably the only major problem that they do fact according to studies carried out over the past decade.[13] In fact recent research has indicated that adults, because of their more powerful conceptual abilities, can grasp the structure and vocabulary of a language better than children providing the adults are helped to see the relevance of what they are studying in either personal, social, or occupational terms or a combination of the three.[14]

Another important aspect of the adult ESL learner, and one frequently overlooked by teachers, is the willingness of the learner to put vigorous effort into the learning process. They are, in short, willing to work at learning language and <u>they expect to be given useful work to do</u> and lots of it.

Much more could be said about the learner, and in time it will be said but for now, the preceding should be sufficient to serve the model.

<u>The Teacher</u>

Like the population of adult ESL learners, the population of ESL teachers in ABE type programs is variegated in the extreme. The range of expertise reaches from the person who is totally unprepared to teach ESL to the possessor of skills and credentials equalling the highest standards endorsed by the TESOL organization. However, the distribution of the population has been and still is skewed in favor of the untrained, inexperienced, but undoubtedly well meaning and educable practitioner.

I do not wish to spend a great deal of time discussing teacher unpreparation or in-service education. I have done this elsewhere - as have many others[15] - and I see no point in dwelling on the subject. I would like to say, however, that where teachers are not trained for the task of teaching ESL, staff development services which utilize the best available consultant talent should be a continuing policy of any ABE program. It is not easy to teach ESL - there is a lot to learn about teaching, about people, about cultures, and about English language itself, and it is frightening to be in front of a group of people who do not speak your language and try to teach them without a rich supply of pedagogical resources.

Materials and Methods

The final components of the model are still in the developmental stage and are likely to remain so for at least the next year. These are the materials and methods components that I am just beginning to work on and will attempt to introduce and test in the Fall of 1979. I will, however, outline some of my thinking on these components in this article.

First of all, I adhere philosophically or otherwise to no one set of ESL teaching methods although much of my own teaching has involved the so-called audio-lingual technology. I have found within the framework of audio-lingualism many useful teaching devices even though I reject the strict behaviorist underpinnings of the approach. I know that any good ESL teacher learns through experience to select from the wide range of methods that are available to the foreign language teacher, and each teacher should develop his or her repertoire of methods and techniques as fully as possible.[16] An important rule of good ESL teaching is "Don't stand in the way of students trying to learn the language by being a

methodological evangelist."

Realizing that many of our teachers are untrained and inexperienced, I propose to develop classroom materials that are not only instructive to the learner but can also be instructive to the teacher. That is, I believe it is possible to design teaching materials that in use provide the teacher with insights into the English language and the way it works, into the specifics of the culture in which we live (and which we often ignore simply because we deal intuitively with our culture) and into the variety of methods that can be employed in teaching ESL.[17] I know from my early experience that I learned almost as much about English syntax from teaching Lado and Fries' English Sentence Patterns as I did taking formal courses in linguistics.

The materials that I envision for the model will have, in addition to the characteristics just described, the following major characteristics:

1. The content of the materials will serve a twofold purpose. The content will derive from and describe the society in which we live and it will be linguistically complete.[18] In other words, the adult learner will have maximum opportuntity to use his or her superior conceptual skills in learning to manipulate with accuracy and, it is hoped, subsequent mastery, the structures of the English language. The materials will not only deal with the transactional[19] aspects of human communication (APL e.g.) but also with the expressions of personal things, ideas, opinions, passions, etc.[20]

2. The materials will be organized into modules covering about four weeks of classroom instruction (24-36 hours). Each module will be coordinated according to scores on standardized tests of oral English proficiency.[21]

3. The materials will be oral/aural in instructional emphasis, but they can and will be supplemented with exercises in reading and writing appropriate to individual learner needs.

4. The materials will provide for appropriate out of class activities, homework if you will. Our learners expect this and will do it. This important aspect of teaching ESL is too often overlooked.

5. The materials will be general enough to be locally adaptable but specific enough to guide most instruction.

This model I am advancing is not revolutionary but evolutionary. Each of the proposed ingredients has been individually proposed elsewhere, but I believe that this can be the beginning of a comprehensive scheme for teaching ESL to adults, a scheme that derives fully from the field of ABE/ESL. Granted, the model needs fleshing out, but that has begun already and will continue for as long as it takes to build the concept.

Footnotes

[1]Malcolm S. Knowles, The Adult Education Movement in the United States, (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1962), pp. 55.

[2]Kenneth J. Mattran, "A Study of Programs of English for Adult Speakers of Other Languages in Public Schools in the State of Michigan," unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1973.

[3]This information was acquired through discussions with professionals associated with programs in these cities (Donna Ilyin in San Francisco and Alice Perlman in New York City are two that have described programs to me).

[4]Mattran "A Study of Programs. . . .," pp. 90-95.

[5]Malcolm S. Knowles, The Modern Practice of Adult Education, (New York: The Association Press, 1970).

[6]John Dewey, Experience in Education.

[7]Barry P. Taylor, "Adult Language Learning Strategies and Their Pedagogical Implications", TESOL Quarterly, (Dec., 1975), pp. 391-398.

[8]Evelyn Hatch, "Disclosure Analysis in Second Language Acquisition", TESOL Quarterly, (Sept., 1976), p. 348, Research Notes.

[9]Dell Hymes, Foundations in Sociolinguistics, (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1974).

[10]Robin Lakoff, "Language and Society, in a Survey of Applied Linguistics, edited by Ronald Wardhaugh and H. Douglas Brown, (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1976).

[11]Jack D. Richards, "Second Language Learning," in a Survey of Applied Linguistics, edited by Ronald Wardhaugh and Douglas Brown, (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1976), p. 131.

[12]ibid p. 129.

[13]Carl Diller, Generative Grammar, Structural Linguistics and Language Teaching, (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1971), p. 86.

[14]R. C. Gardner and W. E. Lamber, Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning, (Rowley, Mass: Newbury House, 1972).

[15]Kenneth J. Mattran, "Developing a Basis for Training Adult Basic Education Teachers of English as a Second Language," Adult Literacy and Basic Education, (Spring, 1977), pp. 21-28.

[16]Earl W. Stevick, Memory, Meaning and Method, (Rowley, Mass: Newbury House, 1976), p. 103, passim.

[17]Joan Morley, "Materials Development: The New Frontier," Plenary Session presentation to 13th Annual TESOL Convention, Boston, 1979.

[18]Suggested by Mary Galvan "Planning the Language Component Bilingual Vocational". 1977.

[19]Rudolfo Jacobsen, "Incorporating Sociolingistic Norms Into An EFL Program". TESOL Quarterly, (Dec., 1976), p. 418.

[20]ibid, p. 418, passim.

[21]e.g., Ilyin Oral Interiew.